

Asymmetric Cryptosystem

Prof Chik How Tan
NISlab
Gjøvik University College
Chik.tan@hig.no

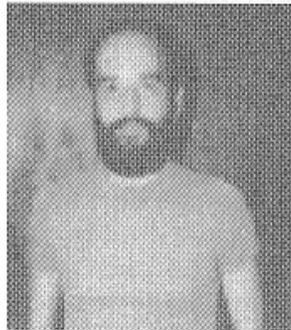
Public Key Cryptosystem

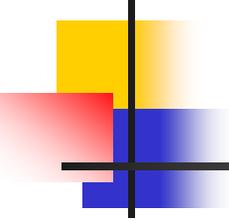
- 1976, invented by Diffie and Hellman
- 1973, also invented by Cocks, the British cryptographer. It is only release in December 1997 by British government's Communications Services Electronics Security Group (CESG)
- Main applications are the digital signature and secret key establishment over public communications channels
- This is a two keys system, that is, public key and private key



RSA Public Key Cryptosystem

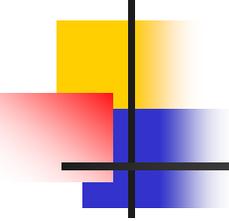
- 1978, invented by R. L. Rivest, A. Shamir and L. Adleman
- This is a first to realize the public key encryption
- This cryptosystem is based on the difficulty of factorization of large number





RSA

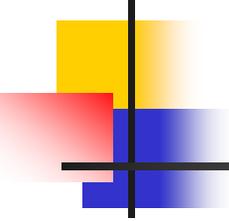
1. Key generation
2. Encryption/Decryption
3. Digital signature generation/verification



RSA: Key Generation

1. Choose two distinct prime numbers p and q randomly.
2. Compute the product $n = p \cdot q$ and $\Phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$.
3. Choose an integer e randomly such that $0 < e < \Phi(n)$ and $\gcd(e, \Phi(n)) = 1$.
4. Compute d such that $0 < d < \Phi(n)$ and $e \cdot d = 1 \pmod{\Phi(n)}$.
5. Publish (n, e) , keep (p, q, d) secret.

Note: e – public key (or encryption key) of Alice
 d - private key (or decryption key) of Alice



RSA

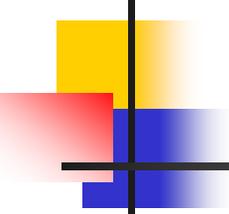
Encryption : $c = E(m, e) = m^e \bmod n$

Decryption : $D(c, d) = c^d = m \bmod n$

Signature Generation : $\sigma = H(m)^d \bmod n,$

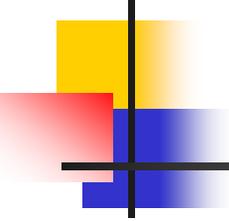
where H is a hash function

Signature Verification : $\sigma^e = H(m) \bmod n$



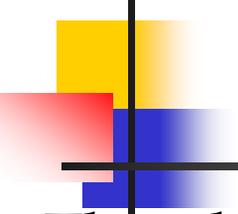
Security of RSA

- Factoring of n is hard
- Knowing d or $\Phi(n)$, n can be factor easily
- Share modulo n with different e_1 and e_2
- Discrete logarithm problem is also hard, that is, given m and c to find d such that $m = c^d \pmod n$



Factorization of Number

Year	Number of digits
1964	20 (~64bits)
1974	45 (~128bits)
1984	71 (~256bits)
1994	129 (~384bits)
1999	155 (~512bits)



Factoring RSA-129 (1)

This challenge was made in public in 1977 and offered a \$100 to anyone who could decipher the message before 1 April, 1982.

$e=9007$

$n =$

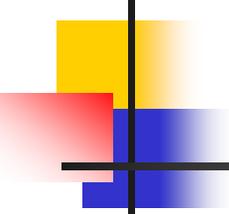
114381625757888867669235779976146612010218296721242362
562561842935706935245733897830597123563958705058989075
147599290026879543541

The ciphertext is

$c =$

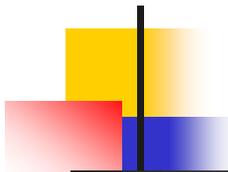
968696137546220614771409222543558829057599911245743198
746951209308162982251457083569314766228839896280133919
90551829945157815154.

Find the plaintext?



Factoring RSA-129 (2)

- 1994, Atkin, Graff, Lenstra and Leyland succeeded in factoring RSA-129
- Involved six hundred people, with a total 1600 computers working in spare time and store the result in a large matrix
- After 7 months, a matrix with 524339 columns and 569466 rows. This matrix is sparse and by Gaussian elimination reduced to the matrix with 188160 columns and 188614 rows which took 12 hours.
- After 45 hours of computation, it found the factorization of RSA-129.



Factoring RSA-129 (3)

$p =$

349052951084765094914784961990389813341776463849338784
3990820577,

$q =$

327691329932667095499619881908344614131776429679929425
39798288533.

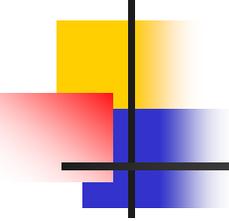
$d =$

106698614368578024442868771328920154780709906633937862
801226224496631063125911774470873340168597462306553968
544513277109053606095.

Plaintext is

200805001301070903002315180419000118050019172105011309
190800151919090618010705,

Plaintext is : the magic words are squeamish ossifrage



Factoring RSA-155 (1)

This is one of the challenge of RSA

RSA-155 =

```
109417386415705274218097073220403576120037329454492059909138421314763499842889\  
34784717997257891267332497625752899781833797076537244027146743531593354333897
```

Find the factor of RSA-155?

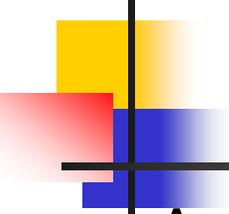
$p =$

```
102639592829741105772054196573991675900716567808038066803341933521790711307779
```

$q =$

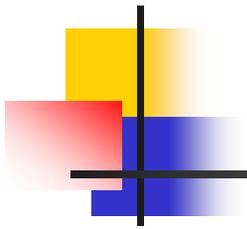
```
106603488380168454820927220360012878679207958575989291522270608237193062808643.
```

p and q are 78 digits.



Factoring RSA-155 (2)

- August, 1999, Cavallar, Dodson, Lenstra and Lioen, Mogntgomery, Murphy, Tiele, Aradal, Gilchrist, Guillerm, Leyland, Marchand, Morain, Muffett, Putnam, Zimmermann, succeeded in factoring 155 digits (512 bits)
- Initiate state take 3.7 month, on 160 SGI and Sun workstation, eight R10000 processors, 120 Pentium II PC and four DEC computer (500MHz). Total CPU time is 35.7 CPU years.
- A matrix with 6,711,336 columns and 6,699,191 rows. Finding dependencies of this matrix by Lanczos algorithm on Cray C916 took 224 hours.
- After 61.6 hours on three SGI Origin 2000 computer, it found the factorization of 155 digits.



Factoring n for given $\Phi(n)$

We have

$$\Phi = (p - 1)(q - 1) = N - (p + q) + 1.$$

Hence, if we set $S = N + 1 - \Phi$, we obtain

$$S = p + q.$$

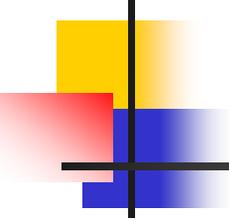
So we need to determine p and q from their sum S and product N . Define the polynomial

$$f(X) = (X - p) \cdot (X - q) = X^2 - SX + N.$$

So we can find p and q by solving $f(X) = 0$ using the standard formulae for extracting the roots of a quadratic polynomial,

$$p = \frac{S + \sqrt{S^2 - 4N}}{2},$$
$$q = \frac{S - \sqrt{S^2 - 4N}}{2}.$$

Q.E.D.



Factoring n for given $\Phi(n)$ (Con't)

As an example consider the RSA public modulus $N = 18923$. Assume that we are given $\Phi = \phi(N) = 18648$. We then compute

$$S = p + q = N + 1 - \Phi = 276.$$

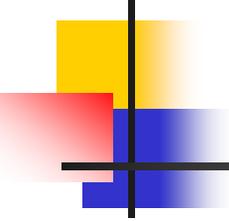
Using this we compute the polynomial

$$f(X) = X^2 - SX + N = X^2 - 276X + 18923$$

and find that its roots over the real numbers are

$$p = 149, q = 127$$

which are indeed the factors of N .



Factoring n for given d

$$ed - 1 = s(p - 1)(q - 1).$$

We pick an integer $x \neq 0$, this is guaranteed to satisfy

$$x^{ed-1} = 1 \pmod{N}.$$

We now compute a square root y_1 of one modulo N ,

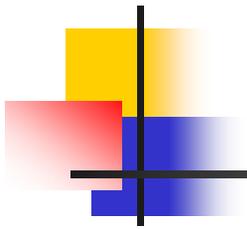
$$y_1 = \sqrt{x^{ed-1}} = x^{(ed-1)/2},$$

which we can do since $ed - 1$ is known and will be even. We will then have the identity

$$y_1^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{N},$$

which we can use to recover a factor of N via computing

$$\gcd(y_1 - 1, N).$$



Share modulo with different e_1 and e_2

(N, e_1) and (N, e_2) ,

i.e. $N_1 = N_2 = N$. Eve, the external attacker, sees the messages c_1 and c_2 where

$$c_1 = m^{e_1} \pmod{N},$$

$$c_2 = m^{e_2} \pmod{N}.$$

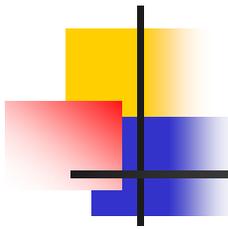
Eve can now compute

$$t_1 = e_1^{-1} \pmod{e_2},$$

$$t_2 = (t_1 e_1 - 1)/e_2,$$

and can recover the message m from

$$\begin{aligned} c_1^{t_1} c_2^{-t_2} &= m^{e_1 t_1} m^{-e_2 t_2} \\ &= m^{1+e_2 t_2} m^{-e_2 t_2} \\ &= m^{1+e_2 t_2 - e_2 t_2} \\ &= m^1 = m. \end{aligned}$$



Share modulo with different e_1 and e_2

As an example of this external attack, take the public keys as

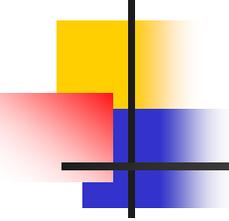
$$N = N_1 = N_2 = 18\,923, e_1 = 11 \text{ and } e_2 = 5.$$

Now suppose Eve sees the ciphertexts

$$c_1 = 1514 \text{ and } c_2 = 8189$$

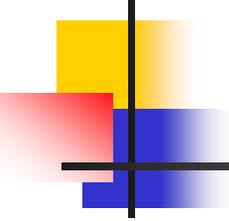
corresponding to the same plaintext m . Then Eve computes $t_1 = 1$ and $t_2 = 2$, and recovers the message

$$m = c_1^{t_1} c_2^{-t_2} = 100 \pmod{N}.$$



ElGamal Signature Scheme

- Invented by ElGamal in 1985.
- This is based on the difficulty of discrete logarithm problem over prime field
- He also invented an encryption based on discrete logarithm problem
- This scheme later modified to digital signature standard



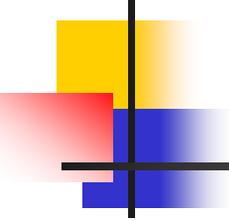
Discrete Logarithm Problem

Let p be a prime, g be a primitive element of $Z_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ (i.e., $Z_p^* = \{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{p-2}\}$).

Discrete logarithm problem: Given $y \in Z_p^*$, find the integer x such that

$$y = g^x \pmod{p}$$

Such x is called the discrete logarithm of y over base g and denoted as $x = \log_g y$.



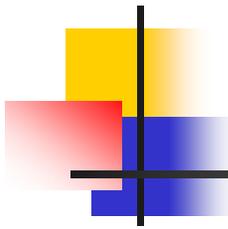
ElGamal : Key Generation

- Choose a large prime p and let $Z_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$
- Choose a primitive element g of Z_p^*
- Randomly choose x such that $1 < x < p-1$ and compute

$$y = g^x \pmod{p}$$

(x, y) is a pair of private and public key.

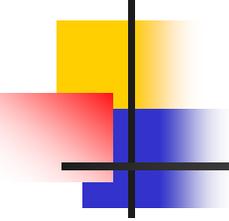
Note: (p, g) may be chosen and published by a trusted third party for common use.



ElGamal : Signature Generation

Signing a message m such that $0 < m < p-1$ with the private key x

- Randomly choose a k such that $0 < k < p-2$ and $\gcd(k, p-1)=1$.
- Compute the inverse k^{-1} of k such that
$$k^{-1} \cdot k = 1 \pmod{p-1}$$
- Compute
$$r = g^k \pmod{p}$$
$$s = k^{-1}(m - x \cdot r) \pmod{p-1}$$
- Digital signature on m is (r, s) .



ElGamal : Signature Verification

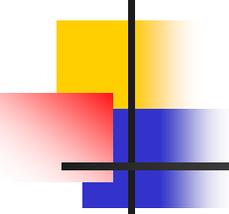
Verifying the digital signature (r,s) on the message m with the public key y

- Compute

$$u = r^s \cdot y^r \text{ mod } p$$

$$v = g^m \text{ mod } p$$

- Check whether $u=v$ or not. If $u=v$, then (r,s) is genuine digital signature on m . Otherwise, it is invalid.



ElGamal : Verification Equation

Prove that $r^s \cdot y^r = g^m \pmod p$

Proof:

As $r = g^k \pmod p$, $s = k^{-1} (m - x \cdot r) \pmod{p-1}$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} s \cdot k &= (m - x \cdot r) \pmod{p-1} \\ &= (m - x \cdot r) + i \cdot (p-1) \end{aligned}$$

$$s \cdot k + x \cdot r = m + i \cdot (p-1),$$

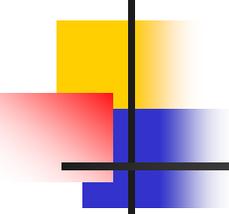
We have

$$g^{s \cdot k + x \cdot r} \pmod p = g^{m + i \cdot (p-1)} \pmod p$$

$$(g^k)^s (g^x)^r \pmod p = g^m (g^{p-1})^i \pmod p$$

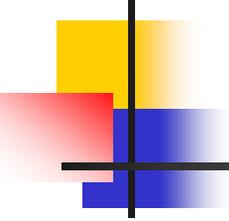
$$r^s \cdot y^r \pmod p = g^m \pmod p$$

(by Fermat Theorem: $g^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$)



Security of Signature Scheme

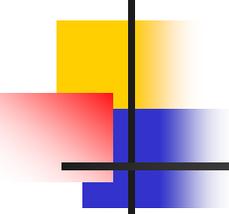
- *Existential forgery* : An adversary is able to forge the signature of **at least one message, not necessarily the one of his/her choice**
- *Selective forgery* : An adversary succeeds in forging the signature of **some message of his/her choice**
- *Universal forgery* : An adversary is able to forge the signature of **any message** without knowing the secret key
- *Retrieval of secret key* : Adversary finds out the signer's secret key



Security of ElGamal Scheme

- Knowing (p, g, y) such that $y = g^x \pmod p$, it is hard for the adversary to solve the discrete logarithm problem to get the private key x of the user.
- Knowing (p, g, y, r, s) , it is hard for an adversary to obtain k from $r = g^k \pmod p$ and then extract the private key x of the user from $s = k^{-1} (m - x \cdot r) \pmod{p-1}$.

The security of ElGamal signature scheme depends on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithm over Z_p .



Existential Forgery Attack to ElGamal Scheme

Without knowing the private key x of Alice, a forger chooses u, v such that $\gcd(v, p-1)=1$ and computes

$$r = y^v g^u \pmod p$$

$$s = -rv^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$$

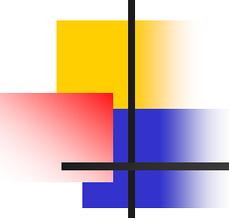
$$m = su \pmod{p-1}$$

Then, the forged signature on m is (s, r) . It can be checked that this is a valid signature as follows:

$$v_1 = y^r r^s \pmod p = y^r (y^v g^u)^{-rv^{-1}} \pmod p = (g^u)^{-rv^{-1}} \pmod p$$

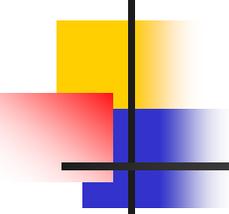
$$v_2 = g^m \pmod p = g^{su} \pmod p = (g^u)^{-rv^{-1}} \pmod p$$

It is obvious that $v_1 = v_2 \pmod p$



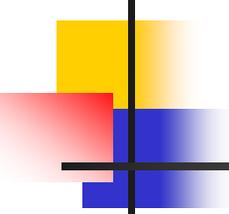
Schnorr Signature Scheme

- Invented by Schnorr in 1989
- Suitable for smart card application
- Schnorr scheme is more efficient than ElGamal scheme in term of computation
- Signature size is shorter than that of ElGamal scheme



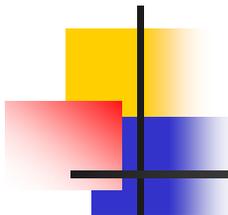
Schnorr : Parameter set up

- Let q and p are two large prime such that q divides $p-1$ (normally p is of 1024 bit, q is 160 bits)
- Let g be an element of Z_p^* of order q
- Let H be a hash function : $\{0,1\}^* \rightarrow Z_q$
- Choose $x < q$ and compute $y = g^x \bmod p$
- Alice's public key is (p, q, y, H) ; her secret key is x



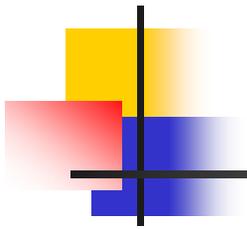
Schnorr : Signature Generation

- Let m be a message in $\{0,1\}^*$
- Alice picks a random $k < q$ and computes a signature pair (e,s) where
 - $r = g^k \bmod p$
 - $e = H(m \parallel r)$
 - $s = k + xe \bmod q$
- The signature of m is (e,s)



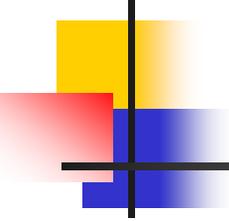
Schnorr : Signature Verification

- Given a message-signature pair $(m, (e,s))$. Bob verify the following
 - $r' = g^s y^{-e} \text{ mod } p$
 - $e' = H(m || r')$
 - Check $e=e'$
- If $e=e'$ then the signature is a valid one, otherwise invalid



Schnorr Signature Scheme (Example)

- $p=607, q=101, g=601$
- Let $x=3$ as a secret key, $y=g^x \bmod p = 391$ as a public key
- Let $k=65$, then $r=g^k \bmod p=223$
- $e=H(m \parallel r) \bmod q$. Let $e=93$
- Then, $s=k+xe \bmod q = 65 + 3 \cdot 93 \bmod 101 = 41$
- Hence, the signature is $(41, 93)$
- Verification: $g^{41}y^{-93}=r \bmod p$



Digital Signature Standard (DSS)

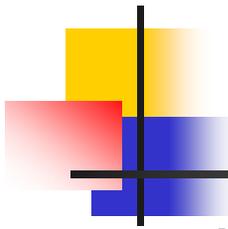
FIPS PUB 186

Digital Signature Standard

Federal Information Processing Standards Publications

U. S. Department of Commerce/N.I.S.T.

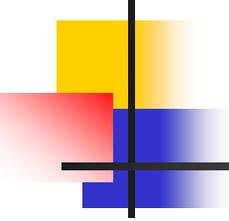
May 1994



Digital Signature Standard

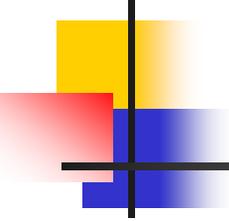
- Key generation:

- generate a large random prime p such that $2^{511} < p < 2^{1024}$
- Choose a prime factor q of $p-1$ such that $2^{159} < q < 2^{160}$
- Choose an integer h such that $1 < h < p-1$ and $g = h^{(p-1)/q} \pmod{p} > 1$
- H is a secure hash function (SHA)
- select a random integer x , $1 \leq x \leq p-2$
- compute $y = g^x \pmod{p}$
- public key: (p, g, y)
- private key: x



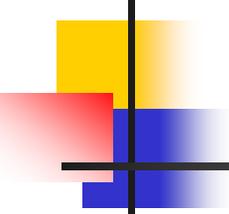
DSS (Cont'd)

- Signature generation:
 - select a random integer k , $0 < k < q$
 - compute $r = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$
 - compute $k^{-1} \bmod q$
 - compute $s = k^{-1} (H(m) + x r) \bmod q$
 - the signature is the pair (r, s)



DSS (Cont'd)

- Signature verification:
 - obtain authentic public key (p, q, g, y)
 - verify that $1 \leq r < q$ and $1 \leq s < q$
 - compute $u = s^{-1} H(m) \bmod q$ and $v = s^{-1} r \bmod q$
 - compute $z = (g^u y^v \bmod p) \bmod q$
 - accept the signature if $z = r$



DSS : Verification Equation

Prove $(g^u \cdot y^v \bmod p) \bmod q = r$

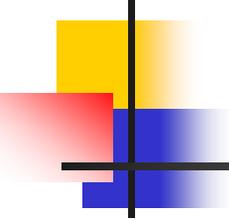
Proof:

As $r = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$, $s = k^{-1} (H(M) + x \cdot r) \bmod q$
and $u = s^{-1} \cdot H(M) \bmod q$, $v = s^{-1} \cdot r \bmod q$

$$k = s^{-1} (H(M) + x \cdot r) = u + v \cdot x \bmod q$$

$$k = u + v \cdot x + i \cdot q$$

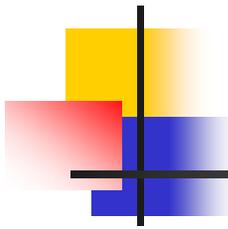
$$\begin{aligned} r &= (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q \\ &= (g^{u+v \cdot x + i \cdot q} \bmod p) \bmod q \\ &= (g^u \cdot (g^x)^v \cdot (g^q)^i \bmod p) \bmod q \\ &= (g^u \cdot y^v \bmod p) \bmod q \end{aligned}$$



Security of DSS

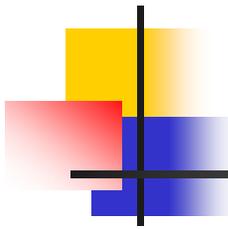
- Knowing (p, g, y) such that $y = g^x \pmod{p}$, it is hard for the adversary to solve the discrete logarithm over G to get the private key x of the user.
- Knowing (p, g, y, r, s) , it is hard for an adversary to obtain k from $r = (g^k \pmod{p}) \pmod{q}$ and then extract the private key x of the user from $s = k^{-1} (m + x \cdot r) \pmod{q}$.

The security of DSS depends on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithm over G .



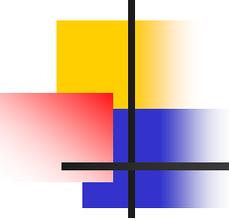
Identity Based Cryptosystem

- is proposed by Shamir in 1984.
- The first ID-based signature is by Guillou and Quisquater in 1988.
- The first ID-based encryption are by Boneh and Franklin in 2001, and Cook in 2001, Sakai et al in 2000, independently.
- Idea is used user identity for encryption and signature verification.
- Does not require to have public key infrastructure.



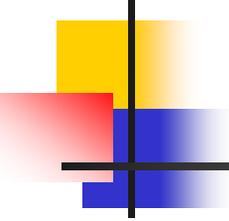
GQ ID-based Signature

- Master key generation: choose two primes p and q , let $n=pq$, choose e and d such that $e.d=1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$. d is a secret master key, public key is (n, e) .
- Private key generation: Given an ID, compute $x=H(\text{ID})^d \pmod n$, give x to the user with ID.
- Signature generation: To sign a message m , choose a random $r < n$, compute $c=H(r^e \pmod n, m)$, $s=r.x^{-c} \pmod n$ signature is (m, c, s) .
- Signature verification: Given signature (m, c, s) of ID, verify $c=H(s^e H(\text{ID})^c \pmod n, m)$.



Elliptic Curve Cryptosystem

- Discovered independently by Koblitz and Miller in 1985.
- Miller presented at the Crypto'85 Conference.
- Security is based on the hardness of Elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem (ECDLP).
- Any protocol based on DLP can be converted to one based on ECDLP.



Elliptic Curve E over Z_p

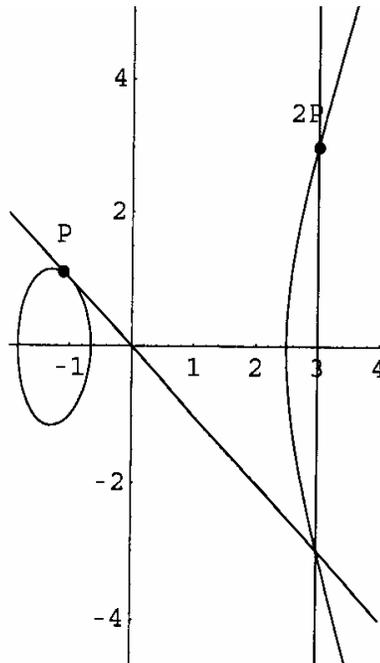
$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

Where $a, b \in Z_p$ and $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0 \pmod p$

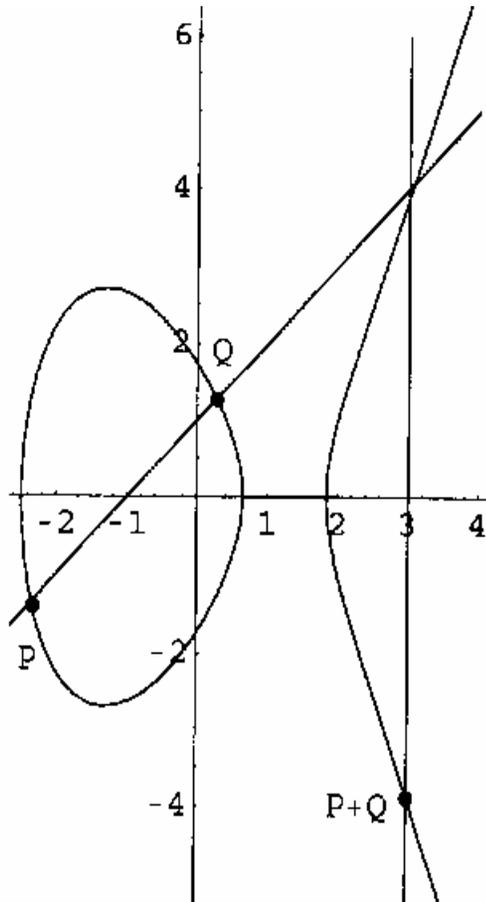
$E(Z_p)$ consists of all the point (x, y) plus a O point.

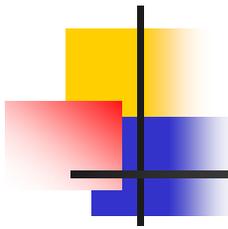
Addition of Points

- $P + O = O + P = P$ for all $P \in E(Z_p)$
- if $P=(x,y) \in E(Z_p)$, then $-P=(x,-y)$ and $(x,y) + (x,-y) = O$



Adding points on an elliptic curve





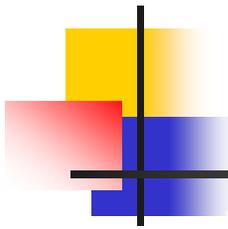
Formula for adding points

Let $P = (x_1, y_1) \in E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$ and $Q = (x_2, y_2) \in E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$, where $P \neq -Q$. Then $P+Q = (x_3, y_3)$, where

$$x_3 = \lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2$$

$$y_3 = \lambda (x_1 - x_3) - y_1,$$

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} & \text{if } P \neq Q \\ \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1} & \text{if } P = Q. \end{cases}$$



An Example

1. Let $P = (3, 10)$ and $Q = (9, 7)$. Then $P + Q = (x_3, y_3)$ is computed as follows:

$$\lambda = \frac{7 - 10}{9 - 3} = \frac{-3}{6} = \frac{-1}{2} = 11 \in \mathbf{Z}_{23}.$$

$$x_3 = 11^2 - 3 - 9 = 6 - 3 - 9 = -6 \equiv 17 \pmod{23}, \text{ and}$$

$$y_3 = 11(3 - (-6)) - 10 = 11(9) - 10 = 89 \equiv 20 \pmod{23}.$$

Hence $P + Q = (17, 20)$.

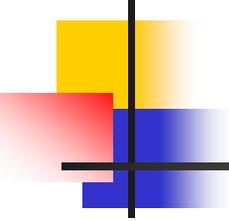
2. Let $P = (3, 10)$. Then $2P = P + P = (x_3, y_3)$ is computed as follows:

$$\lambda = \frac{3(3^2) + 1}{20} = \frac{5}{20} = \frac{1}{4} = 6 \in \mathbf{Z}_{23}.$$

$$x_3 = 6^2 - 6 = 30 \equiv 7 \pmod{23}, \text{ and}$$

$$y_3 = 6(3 - 7) - 10 = -24 - 10 = -11 \equiv 12 \pmod{23}.$$

Hence $2P = (7, 12)$.



Elliptic Curves

Weierstraß equation:

$$E : y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6 \text{ over } \mathcal{K}$$

- (i) \mathcal{O} is the identity element: $P + \mathcal{O} = P$.
- (ii) The inverse of $P = (x_1, y_1)$ is $-P = (x_1, -y_1 - ax_1 - a_3)$.
- (iii) If $Q = -P$, then $P + Q = \mathcal{O}$.
- (iv) Let $P = (x_1, y_1)$ and $Q = (x_2, y_2)$ with $Q \neq -P$. Then $P + Q = (x_3, y_3)$

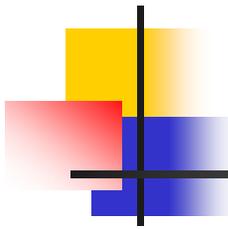
where

$$x_3 = \lambda^2 + a_1\lambda - a_2 - x_1 - x_2 \text{ and } y_3 = -(\lambda + a_1)x_3 - \mu - a_3$$

with

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} \frac{y_1 - y_2}{x_1 - x_2} & \text{if } P \neq Q \\ \frac{3x_1^2 + 2a_2x_1 + a_4 - a_1y_1}{2y_1 + a_1x_1 + a_3} & \text{if } P = Q \end{cases}$$

and $\mu = y_1 - \lambda x_1$



Elliptic Curves over binary fields

If $\text{char}(\mathcal{K})=2$, then the elliptic curve is of the form

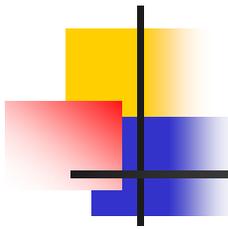
$$E : y^2 + xy = x^3 + ax^2 + b \text{ over } GF(2^m)$$

$$x_3 = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{y_1+y_2}{x_1+x_2}\right)^2 + \frac{y_1+y_2}{x_1+x_2} + x_1 + x_2 + a & \text{if } P \neq Q \\ x_1^2 + \frac{b}{x_1^2} & \text{if } P = Q \end{cases}$$

$$y_3 = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{y_1+y_2}{x_1+x_2}\right)(x_1 + x_3) + x_3 + y_1 & \text{if } P \neq Q \\ x_1^2 + \left(x_1 + \frac{y_1}{x_1}\right)x_3 + x_3 & \text{if } P = Q \end{cases}$$

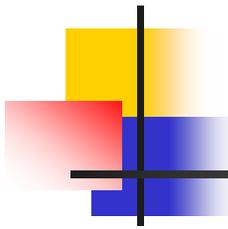
Correspondence between \mathbf{Z}_p^* and $E(\mathbf{Z}_p)$ notation.

Group	\mathbf{Z}_p^*	$E(\mathbf{Z}_p)$
Group elements	Integers $\{ 1, 2, \dots, p - 1 \}$	Points (x, y) on E plus O
Group operation	multiplication modulo p	addition of points
Notation	Elements: g, h Multiplication: $g \bullet h$ Inverse: g^{-1} Division: g / h Exponentiation: g^a	Elements: P, Q Addition: $P + Q$ Negative: $-P$ Subtraction: $P - Q$ Multiple: aP
Discrete Logarithm Problem	Given $g \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ and $h = g^a \bmod p$, find a	Given $P \in E(\mathbf{Z}_p)$ and $Q = aP$, find a .



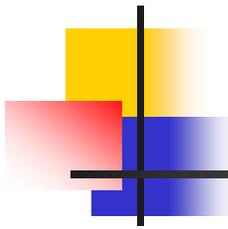
Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)

1999 Jan.	ANSI X9.62
2000 Jan.	FIPS 186-2
2000 Aug.	IEEE Std 1363-2000



ECDSA : Key Generation

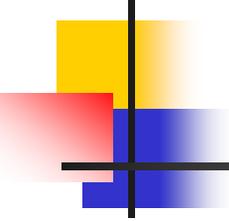
- Domain parameters: $E, \mathbb{F}_q, G \in E(\mathbb{F}_q), n = \text{ord}(G), h = \#E(\mathbb{F}_q)/n.$
- Each entity A does the following:
 1. Select a random integer d in the interval $[1, n - 1].$
 2. Compute $Q = dG.$
 3. A 's public key is Q ; A 's private key is $d.$



ECDSA : Signature Generation

To sign a message m , A does the following:

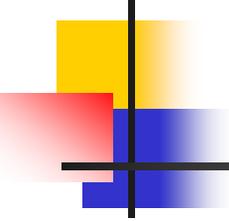
1. Select a random integer k , $1 \leq k \leq n - 1$.
2. Compute $kG = (x_1, y_1)$ and $r = x_1 \bmod n$.
If $r = 0$ then go to step 1.
3. Compute $k^{-1} \bmod n$.
4. Compute $e = \text{SHA-1}(m)$.
5. Compute $s = k^{-1}\{e + dr\} \bmod n$.
If $s = 0$ then go to step 1.
6. A 's signature for the message m is (r, s) .



ECDSA : Signature Verification

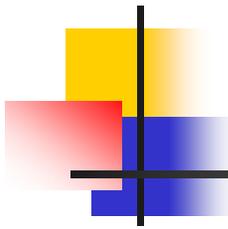
To verify A 's signature (r, s) on m , B should do the following:

1. Verify that r and s are integers in the interval $[1, n - 1]$.
2. Compute $e = \text{SHA-1}(m)$.
3. Compute $w = s^{-1} \bmod n$.
4. Compute $u_1 = ew \bmod n$ and $u_2 = rw \bmod n$.
5. Compute $u_1G + u_2Q = (x_1, y_1)$ and $v = x_1 \bmod n$.
6. Accept the signature if and only if $v = r$.



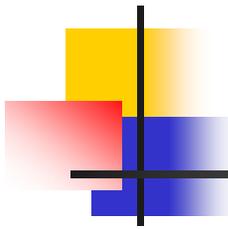
Comparable Key Sizes

Symmetric cipher key lengths	Example algorithm	ECC key length	RSA/DL key length
80	SKIPJACK	160	1024
112	Triple-DES	224	2048
128	128-bit AES	256	3072
192	192-bit AES	384	7680
256	256-bit AES	512	15360



Computing power (Pollard rho-method)

Field size (in bits)	Size of n (in bits)	$\sqrt{\pi n / 2}$	MIPS years
163	160	2^{80}	9.6×10^{11}
191	186	2^{93}	7.9×10^{15}
239	234	2^{117}	1.6×10^{23}
359	354	2^{177}	1.5×10^{41}
431	426	2^{213}	1.0×10^{52}



Elliptic Curve Key Size (by NIST)

Symmetric cipher key length	Example algorithm	Bitlength of p in prime field \mathbb{F}_p	Dimension m of binary field \mathbb{F}_{2^m}
80	SKIPJACK	192	163
112	Triple-DES	224	233
128	AES Small [25]	256	283
192	AES Medium [25]	384	409
256	AES Large [25]	521	571

NIST-recommended elliptic curve over prime fields

P-192: $p = 2^{192} - 2^{64} - 1$, $a = -3$, $h = 1$,

$b = 0x\ 64210519\ E59C80E7\ OFA7E9AB\ 72243049\ FEB8DEEC\ C146B9B1$

$n = 0x\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ 99DEF836\ 146BC9B1\ B4D22831$

P-224: $p = 2^{224} - 2^{96} + 1$, $a = -3$, $h = 1$,

$b = 0x\ B4050A85\ 0C04B3AB\ F5413256\ 5044B0B7\ D7BFD8BA\ 270B3943\ 2355FFB4$

$n = 0x\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFF16A2\ E0B8F03E\ 13DD2945\ 5C5C2A3D$

P-256: $p = 2^{256} - 2^{224} + 2^{192} + 2^{96} - 1$, $a = -3$, $h = 1$,

$b = 0x\ 5AC635D8\ AA3A93E7\ B3EBBD55\ 769886BC\ 651D06B0\ CC53B0F6\ 3BCE3C3E\ 27D2604B$

$n = 0x\ FFFFFFFF\ 00000000\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ BCE6FAAD\ A7179E84\ F3B9CAC2\ FC632551$

P-384: $p = 2^{384} - 2^{128} - 2^{96} + 2^{32} - 1$, $a = -3$, $h = 1$,

$b = 0x\ B3312FA7\ E23EE7E4\ 988E056B\ E3F82D19\ 181D9C6E\ FE814112\ 0314088F\ 5013875A\ C656398D\ 8A2ED19D\ 2A85C8ED\ D3EC2AEF$

$n = 0x\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ C7634D81\ F4372DDF\ 581A0DB2\ 48B0A77A\ ECEC196A\ CCC52973$

P-521: $p = 2^{521} - 1$, $a = -3$, $h = 1$,

$b = 0x\ 00000051\ 953EB961\ 8E1C9A1F\ 929A21A0\ B68540EE\ A2DA725B\ 99B315F3\ B8B48991\ 8EF109E1\ 56193951\ EC7E937B\ 1652C0BD\ 3BB1BF07\ 3573DF88\ 3D2C34F1\ EF451FD4\ 6B503F00$

$n = 0x\ 000001FF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ 51868783\ BF2F966B\ 7FCC0148\ F709A5D0\ 3BB5C9B8\ 899C47AE\ BB6FB71E\ 91386409$

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

The number of points on E is nh

NIST-recommended elliptic curve over binary fields

B-163: $a = 1, h = 2, f(x) = x^{163} + x^7 + x^6 + x^3 + 1$
 $b = 0x\ 00000002\ 0A601907\ B8C953CA\ 1481EB10\ 512F7874\ 4A3205FD$
 $n = 0x\ 00000004\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 000292FE\ 77E70C12\ A4234C33$

B-233: $a = 1, h = 2, f(x) = x^{233} + x^{74} + 1$
 $b = 0x\ 00000066\ 647EDE6C\ 332C7F8C\ 0923BB58\ 213B333B\ 20E9CE42\ 81FE115F$
 $7D8F90AD$
 $n = 0x\ 00000100\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 0013E974\ E72F8A69\ 22031D26$
 $03CFE0D7$

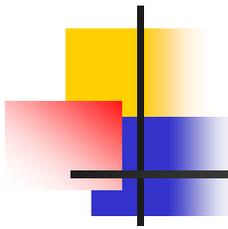
B-283: $a = 1, h = 2, f(x) = x^{283} + x^{12} + x^7 + x^5 + 1$
 $b = 0x\ 027B680A\ C8B8596D\ A5A4AF8A\ 19A0303F\ CA97FD76\ 45309FA2\ A581485A$
 $F6263E31\ 3B79A2F5$
 $n = 0x\ 03FFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFEF90\ 399660FC\ 938A9016$
 $5B042A7C\ EFADB307$

B-409: $a = 1, h = 2, f(x) = x^{409} + x^{87} + 1$
 $b = 0x\ 021A5C2\ C8EE9FEB\ 5C4B9A75\ 3B7B476B\ 7FD6422E\ F1F3DD67\ 4761FA99$
 $D6AC27C8\ A9A197B2\ 72822F6C\ D57A55AA\ 4F50AE31\ 7B13545F$
 $n = 0x\ 01000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 000001E2$
 $AAD6A612\ F33307BE\ 5FA47C3C\ 9E052F83\ 8164CD37\ D9A21173$

B-571: $a = 1, h = 2, f(x) = x^{571} + x^{10} + x^5 + x^2 + 1$
 $b = 0x\ 02F40E7E\ 2221F295\ DE297117\ B7F3D62F\ 5C6A97FF\ CB8CEFF1\ CD6BA8CE$
 $4A9A18AD\ 84FFABBD\ 8EFA5933\ 2BE7AD67\ 56A66E29\ 4AFD185A\ 78FF12AA$
 $520E4DE7\ 39BACA0C\ 7FFEFF7F\ 2955727A$
 $n = 0x\ 03FFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF$
 $FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ E661CE18\ FF559873\ 08059B18\ 6823851E\ C7DD9CA1$
 $161DE93D\ 5174D66E\ 8382E9BB\ 2FE84E47$

$$y^2 + xy = x^3 + ax^2 + b$$

The number of points on E is nh



NIST-recommended elliptic curve over binary fields

$$y^2 + xy = x^3 + ax^2 + b$$

The number of points on E is nh

K-163: $a = 1, b = 1, h = 2, f(x) = x^{163} + x^7 + x^6 + x^3 + 1$

$n = 0x\ 00000004\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00020108\ A2E0CC0D\ 99F8A5EF$

K-233: $a = 0, b = 1, h = 4, f(x) = x^{233} + x^{74} + 1$

$n = 0x\ 00000080\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00069D5B\ B915BCD4\ 6EFB1AD5$
 $F173ABDF$

K-283: $a = 0, b = 1, h = 4, f(x) = x^{283} + x^{12} + x^7 + x^5 + 1$

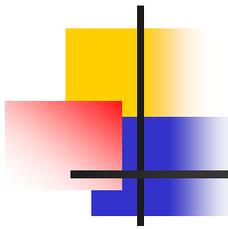
$n = 0x\ 01FFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFE9AE\ 2ED07577\ 265DFF7F$
 $265DFF7F\ 94451E06\ 1E163C61$

K-409: $a = 0, b = 1, h = 4, f(x) = x^{409} + x^{87} + 1$

$n = 0x\ 007FFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF\ FFFFFFFF$
 $83B2D4EA\ 20400EC4\ 557D5ED3\ E3E7CA5B\ 4B5C83B8\ E01E5FCF$

K-571: $a = 0, b = 1, h = 4, f(x) = x^{571} + x^{10} + x^5 + x^2 + 1$

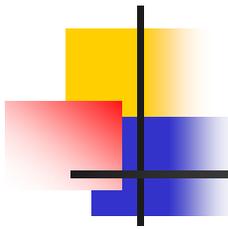
$n = 0x\ 02000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00000000\ 00000000$
 $00000000\ 00000000\ 131850E1\ F19A63E4\ B391A8DB\ 917F4138\ B630D84B$
 $E5D63938\ 1E91DEB4\ 5CFE778F\ 637C1001$



Software Timing for ECDSA

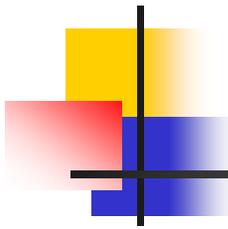
In 2000, M. Aydos, T. Tank, and C. K. Koc implemented ECDSA over Z_p in 80MHz 32-bits ARM7TDMI

ECDSA	160	176	192	208	256
Signing	46.4ms	65.4ms	71.3ms	96.2ms	153.5ms
Verifying	92.4ms	131.3ms	148.3ms	194.3ms	313.4ms



Software Timing for ECDSA (Cont'd)

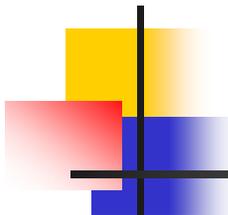
Curve type	NIST Curve	Signing (ms)	Verification (ms)
Prime	P-192	0.28	0.938
	P-224	0.41	1.38
	P-256	0.686	2.25
Binary	B-163	0.48	1.47
	B-233	1.18	3.58
	B-283	1.80	5.385
Koblitz	K-163	0.385	0.79
Binary	K-233	0.842	1.73
	K-283	1.23	2.55



Timing for $k \cdot P$ on FPGA implementation

Target Platform	Key Size	$k \cdot P$ Operations per second
FPGA Hardware [12] (XCV300, 36 MHz)	155	148
FPGA Hardware [12] (XCV300, 33 MHz)	281	70
FPGA CryptoProcessor (XC4085XLA, 37 MHz)	155	775
FPGA CryptoProcessor (XC4085XLA, 36 MHz)	191	431
FPGA CryptoProcessor (XC4085XLA, 34 MHz)	270	146
ASIC CryptoProcessor (AWP, 1 GHz)	270	2300 (estimated)

Over binary field

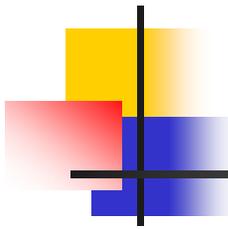


Core ECC Standards

Standard	Schemes included
ANSI X9.62	ECDSA
ANSI X9.63	ECIES, ECDH, ECMQV
FIPS 186-2	ECDSA
IEEE P1363	ECDSA, ECDH, ECMQV
IEEE P1363A	ECIES
IPSec	ECDSA, ECDH
ISO 14888-3	ECDSA
ISO 15946	ECDSA, ECDH, ECMQV

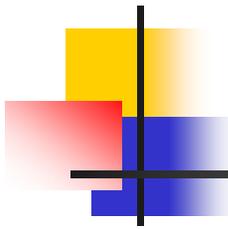
ECDSA vs RSA (ms)

	Elliptic curve over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{233}}$		
	RIM pager	PalmPilot	Pentium II
Key Generation	1,552	2,573	3.11
ECDSA Signing	1,910	3,080	4.03
ECDSA Verifying	3,701	5,878	7.87
	2048-bit modulus		
	RIM pager	PalmPilot	Pentium II
RSA Key Generation	—	—	26,442
RSA Signing	111,956	288,236	440.69
RSA Verifying ($e = 3$)	1,087	2,392	4.2
RSA Verifying ($e = 2^{16} + 1$)	3,608	7,973	13.45



ECC – Patent Situation

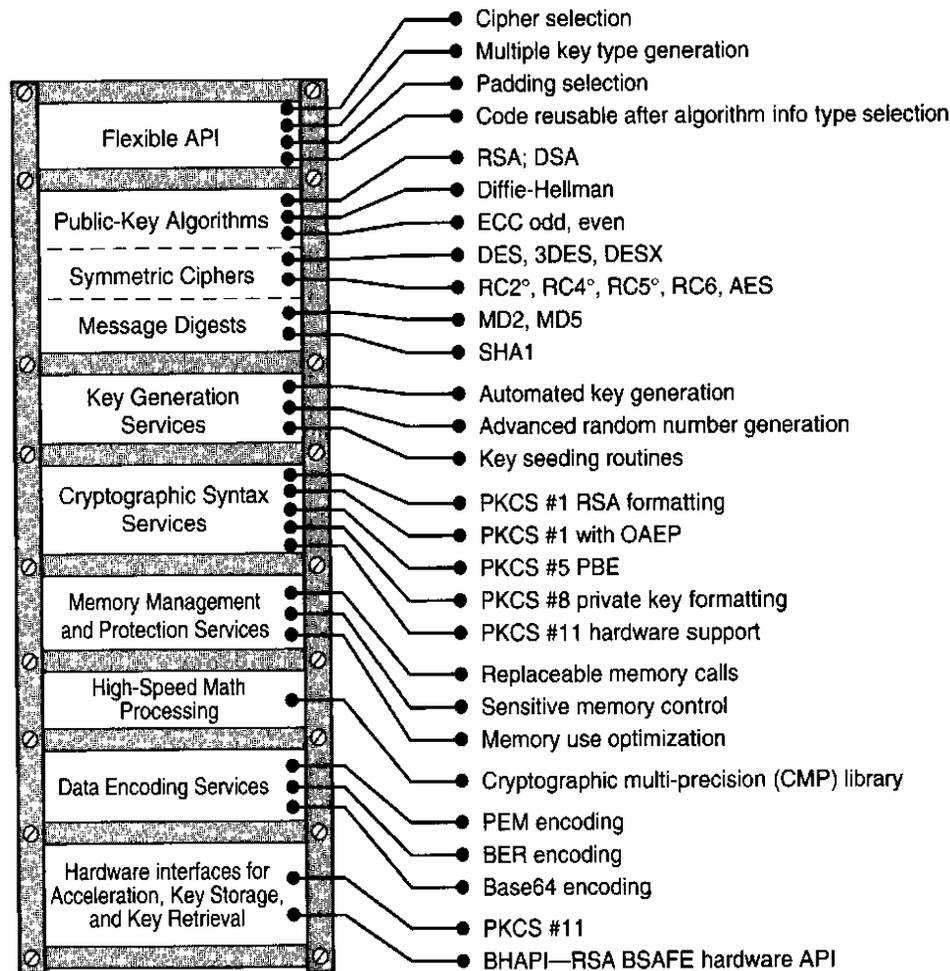
- The general idea to use elliptic curve for public key cryptosystem is not patented
- All the relevant public key based security services are patent free, digital signature, key exchange, authentication
- Some elliptic curve analogues cryptographic schemes are patented, example, Menezes-Qu-Vanstone, Nyberg-Rurppel, Schnorr, etc
- There are a large number of patents on special implementation techniques.

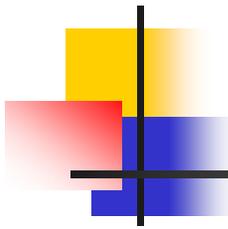


Some Patents

- J.L Messay and J.K. Omura. Computational method and apparatus for finite field arithmetic. US Patent 4,587,627, May, 1986.
- R.C. Mullin, I.M. Onyszchuk, and S.A. Vanstone. Computational Method and apparatus for finite field multiplication, US Patent 4,745,568, May, 1988.
- R.C. Mullin. Multiple bit multiplier. US Patent 5,787,028, Jul, 1998.
- P. Ning and Y.L. Yin Efficient software implementation for finite field multiplication in normal basis. Pending US Patent application. filed in Dec 1997.
- R.J. Lambert and A. Vadekar. Method and apparatus for finite field multiplication. US Patent 6,049,815, April 2000.
- C. K. Koc, E. Savas, and A. F. Tenca. A Scalable and Unified Multiplier for Finite Fields. US Patent Application, February, 2000.
- C. K. Koc, A. F. Tenca, and G. Todorov. An high-radix scalable modular multiplier. US Patent Application, April, 2001.

RSA BSAFE Crypto-C Functional Layers





Notions of Cryptographic Security

- **Unconditional Security:** There is no bound place on the amount of computation that an adversary is allowed to carry out.
- **Computational Security:** This measure concerns the computational effort to break a cryptosystem.
- **Provable Security:** Provide evidence of security by reducing the security of cryptosystem to well-studies mathematical problem that is believed to be difficult to solve. This is also refer to *reductionist security*.